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ABSTRACT

This paper outlines research done in the context of a pre-sessional language course for foreign students going on to postgraduate studies in various disciplines and universities in the United Kingdom. The role of the social component of language and the students' need for social language are emphasized. Social language is defined as language used either to establish or confirm interpersonal relationships, or to perform other functions dependent for their successful realization on the establishing or maintaining of such relationships. Three elements of the interaction situation are significant: the settings in which foreign students come into contact with English speakers, the topics discussed, and the language functions that students might want to use. The content of function-based and setting-based learning programs is described. As there exists a need for leveling within a language course in order to deal with the heterogeneity of skills, three criteria for deciding what should be taught are defined: the student's previous knowledge, grammatical complexity of a particular item, and ideational content. Practice materials are designed with the purpose of: (1) developing student awareness of language functions and factors involved in communication, (2) practicing single aspects of communication, and (3) eliciting interactions in conditions related to those encountered outside the classroom. The work reported here resulted in the production of a set of experimental teaching materials. Sample exercises from these materials are provided in the appendix. (CLK)

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MEETING SOME SOCIAL LANGUAGE NEEDS OF OVERSEAS STUDENTS[1] - Keith Johnson and Keith Morrow

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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PART ONE

1. Background

EACH YEAR the Centre for Applied Language Studies at the University of Reading organises a pre-sessional language course for overseas students who are going on to postgraduate studies in a number of disciplines at a variety of institutions in the United Kingdom. The work outlined in this paper has been carried out in the context of these courses and has resulted in the production of a set of experimental teaching materials - Communicate: The English of Social Interaction (See Appendix).

In emphasising the role of a 'social component' in a pre-sessional language course, we are clearly making several assumptions:

a. That we consider that pre-sessional students from overseas have a need for social language.

b. That we are able to offer some indication of what we mean by 'social' language and of our ability to recognise the general problems which might arise in teaching this language to students on such a course.

It does not seem necessary to spend time justifying the former assumption since to our minds it is self-evident that the student needs social language in order to function as a 'whole person' within a foreign environment and culture. Furthermore, it seems likely that in many cases it is only when social adjustment has begun to take place that the student's psychological set is such that he can gain the maximum benefit from the course of instruction he is following. The second assumption forms the basis of the first part of this paper, where we outline our present ideas about what might be called for these purposes 'social' language and the general problems of constructing a syllabus to teach it. The second part of the paper deals with points raised by a further assumption which may not be, but ought to be, implicit in what has been said.

c. That anyone who is bold enough to be involved in the organisation of a language course has given thought to the detailed classroom techniques and procedures necessary to put theoretical ideas about the nature of learning and what is to be learnt into practice.

2. Social Language

We are not putting forward an over-restrictive definition of 'social' language. What we have in mind is language which is used either simply to establish or confirm interpersonal relationships or else to perform other functions which depend for their successful realisation on the establishing or maintaining of such relationships. Two points should be made:

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[1] The authors would like to acknowledge the help given by the Director of the Centre for Applied Language Studies, Mr D.A Wilkins, in establishing the framework within which these ideas have taken shape. We would wish, however, to take full responsibility for shortcomings of detailed thought and presentation.

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a. The establishing or maintaining of these relationships may depend on factors which are other than linguistic per se. Cultural features ranging from the appropriateness/inappropriateness of gifts in given situations to the problem of how close you should stand to the person you are talking to and the amount of eyeball contact you are allowed, are all relevant. But our interest in the present work is exclusively in the linguistic elements of social interaction.

b. Halliday (1973) has argued that any language utterance has as one of its macro-functions the marking of interpersonal relations of some type. It would seem tempting to define social language as that in which the interpersonal function is predominant. However this would presuppose the existence of some rigorous method of determining the relative weight to be attached to the interpersonal as opposed to the ideational content of an utterance, and unfortunately no such method is available.

A strong definition of social language in functional terms thus seems unobtainable at present. But perhaps a weaker definition will suffice. Our aim need not be to produce a final definition of a particular variety of the language which will be clearly delimited from all other varieties, but could simply be to provide linguistic guidelines for certain specified interaction situations which might be given the label 'social'. This is in fact the line we have followed.

3. Syllabus and types of material

Following the work of van Ek (1975) for the Council of Europe, we considered that three elements of the interaction situation were probably significant, and we set out to examine:

a. The settings where overseas students might come into contact with English-speaking people.

b. The topics which they might want to talk about in these settings.

c. The functions which they might want to express either while talking about these topics or in establishing interpersonal relationships in these settings.

Like van Ek's work, ours was based on introspection and subjective factors rather than on scientific observation. Nevertheless we feel that this approach has considerable value in delimiting the area in which we are operating.

But delimiting an area is by no means the same as constructing a language syllabus or a plan for a language-teaching operation. Since we are interested in teaching language then the specifications of situation, topic and function must be considered in language terms, and it is clear that giving priority to one or the other will affect the language content in different ways.

Setting-based. The prime value of approaching the language through particular settings lies in those cases where an important but restricted set of lexis is associated with the setting or where functions are typically communicated by formular expressions rather than by generally valid exponents. It is also valuable when the setting specifies a particular role for the participants in an interaction, eg doctor/patient; shopkeeper/customer. Features of the language caused by relative status/formality etc can thus be explicitly accounted for. A setting-based programme also has the advantage that it enables cultural and background information to be communicated in an accessible form. Units on 'The Pub', 'In the Post Office', etc, can provide the vehicle for information of various types which visitors from overseas will need if they are to make use of these facilities easily.

But by their very nature situational syllabuses of this type are inflexible. They can only prepare the student for situations which have been foreseen by the materials-producers; and as soon as any one element in a situation changes, the language needed will change as well. As soon as your postillion has been struck not by lightning but by the pox, you face problems.

Another, and perhaps the major, drawback with situation/setting-based materials is that they tend to be over-repetitive in terms of the language encountered. Obviously the lexis will be different from situation to situation, but it is surprising how often particular communicative functions recur. Almost every situation we have encountered in a situational syllabus involves an occurrence of the function request. Admittedly this may merely reflect the essential role which this function plays in most communication, but the net result may still be tedium for the student.

Nevertheless, since there are clear cases where, for the reasons outlined, it will be useful for our students to acquire language which may be setting-specific, our programme does contain a number of so-called situational units.

Function-based The greater part of the course, however, consists of units which are primarily functional in nature but where individual functions may be clustered together in more or less practicable ways to deal with certain topics and are, of course, contextualised in specific settings. An example of the way functions cluster together might be seen in the way the expression of an invitation might lead to acceptance, followed by the making of arrangements and the expression of thanks.

Function-based materials must meet at least two criteria if they are to be successful:

a. The learner must be fully able to conceptualise the function, ie to understand exactly what is being said, why it is being said, and the effect it is likely or intended to have. Only thus will he be able to see whether his expression or interpretation is appropriate to a particular situation, although this last obviously involves aspects of social as well as purely linguistic behaviour.

b. Differences of register between different exponents of the same function must be appreciated. Since it is sometimes difficult to specify exactly the situational constraints which lead a native speaker to select one particular set of forms rather than another to convey a particular function, this is obviously no easy task. But it does seem to us desirable to provide our students with as great an insight as possible into the relationship between content and context.

Selection and Grading

The students attending pre-sessional courses are heterogeneous in almost every respect except the rather general one that they are about to embark on a course of study at a British institution of some kind. Clearly, then, there must be some levelling of the materials to cope with different abilities and attainments, and the establishing of levels ought ideally to take account not only of linguistic variables but also of social/cultural ones. Having said which, we should repeat that our material in its present form makes no attempt to meet this second condition.

One of the criteria for the establishing of a situational unit, it may be remembered, is that the language generated by it tends to be highly restricted

in terms of setting and often fixed or formulaic in nature. Grading formulae in any rigorous way clearly presents problems, and unfortunately many situations require the ability to understand or produce formulae which may be fairly complex in terms eg of length or structure. It is, for example, almost impossible to order a steak without being asked: 'And how would you like it done?' The answer to this need consist only of a single word from a highly restricted lexical set based on: rare - medium - well-done. But before the question can be answered it must be understood, and most conventional language courses would consider the 'structure' it contains to be intermediate/advanced. No steak for beginners? Of course beginners can be taught formulae as formulae, but in terms of language content we should find it very difficult to distinguish between situational materials suitable for beginners and those designed for more advanced students. One answer to this problem lies in the field of exercise types, and these will be dealt with in the second half of this paper.

Even when the primary basis of a unit is functional rather than situational, it is often difficult to decide except on an intuitive and ad hoc basis whether exponent x is more 'difficult' or 'advanced' than exponent y. Consider some of the myriad ways in which one English speaker might invite another to his house to dinner. What criteria can we use to decide which of these should be taught and at which stage? Various possibilities suggest themselves:

a. Previous knowledge of the student.

This seems the most immediately useful criterion, but unfortunately both the student's teaching and the measuring devices used as a basis for assessment are almost certain to have been 'grammatical' in orientation. There is obviously a certain value in such a measure since there is some basis for assuming that a student who has never been taught a particular form, or has been shown to be unable to use it grammatically, will be unable to use it communicatively. Unfortunately the converse is not true. Grammatical knowledge is no guarantee of communicative knowledge.

b. Grammatical complexity

Again, this is a superficially attractive criterion; but how is grammatical complexity measured? In terms of L2 or in terms of the difference between L1 and L2? The latter presents obvious problems in a multinational group, and the former should be considered in the light of Lambert and Gardner's experiments, where their faith in the ability of linguists to measure the complexity of utterances was modified to the extent of considering: 'Si nous allions au théâtre', functioning as a suggestion to be more complex than the simple statement: 'Si nous allions au théâtre nous nous amuserions'.

c. Ideational content

The example from Lambert and Gardner above shows how grammatical complexity and simple measures of length may be unsatisfactory in a functional context. Nevertheless it is clear that the linguistic resources available to the speaker of a language do enable a function to be expressed in ways in which we can intuitively assess as being more or less complex. Consider:

i. How about coming round for dinner on Friday?

and

ii. We were just saying this morning that it's ages since you've been round. Why not come and have dinner on Friday? It would be marvellous to see you both again.

The core-sentence seems to us identical in terms of function in both cases, but in the second case the greater ideational content of the utterance allows a much more natural and 'advanced' invitation to be made. It is surprising how many functions can be conveyed in this way with a simple core (nucleus) introduced by a head and followed by a tail. Interestingly the head or tail alone are often used to imply the function without stating it explicitly.

Clearly, then, the problems of levelling are considerable. Notice, however, that we are not attempting to differentiate between the students in terms of their communicative needs, since these seem likely to be by and large the same. The difference lies in the sophistication of the language they are provided with to meet the needs. In practice we find that a mixture of all the criteria mentioned above is used to provide solutions which, while apparently owing much to hocus-pocus, are intuitively satisfactory. Clearly, though, much work remains to be done in the establishing of generally valid analyses of functions in behavioural and linguistic terms. As an example of the present state of the art, here are four dialogues which are intuitively graded and illustrate part of the function-cluster invite.

1. A: Would you like to come to our house for a meal this evening?
   B: That's very kind of you. Thank you very much. I'd love to.

2. A: We're having a party on Friday. If you're not doing anything, would you like to come round and meet some of our friends?
   B: That is kind of you. Thank you very much. I'd love to.

3. A: Are you doing anything on Friday evening? We were wondering if you'd like to come round to our place. We're having a few people round for a drink and thought you might like to come.
   B: Thank you very much indeed. That would be nice. I'd love to.

4. A: How are you fixed for next Saturday? Do you fancy coming round for a drink? We're having a housewarming. We should have had it weeks ago, of course, but we just haven't got round to it.
   B: Great. I'd love to. Thanks a lot. I've been hoping you'd invite us round to see your new house.

PART TWO

We turn now to the question of providing practice materials within the framework just described. In recent years language-teaching has been concerned with what amounts to a revision of its aims in terms of communicative rather than simply grammatical competence, and the work described here could be claimed to reflect this revision in aims. Most would agree that we cannot expect techniques developed with one aim in mind necessarily to serve another purpose; yet it has not always been the case in language-teaching that changes in objective or method have been accompanied by changes in technique. We are perhaps today in danger of losing many of the potential benefits of functional and other new syllabus types by failing to consolidate them with adequate practice methods. What is required then - and this would seem to apply as much to the general sphere of language-teaching concerned with communicative competence as to our own particular area of materials development - is a fresh consideration of the techniques already at our disposal together with the development of new exercise types. What follows describes no more than the beginning of such an attempt at reconsideration. Three broad categories of practice materials are considered.

1. The first type of exercise is concerned not with providing practice in the production of communicatively acceptable utterances but simply with developing in the students an awareness of language functions and the factors involved in communication. The techniques used are familiar enough and involve (among other things) identification, matching and extrapolation tasks. If the exercises themselves appear somewhat unfamiliar (see Exercise 1 in the Appendix for an example) it is perhaps because they are used with communicative rather than grammatical competence in mind.

Sometimes this first type of exercise simply requires the student to specify the function of utterances within given interactions. Often, however, we explore what might be termed the communicatively syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of exponents. Various forms of extrapolation have been used to increase the student's awareness of the syntagmatic relationships into which exponents of a given function may enter. Thus we provide exponents and ask the students to identify possible linguistic and non-linguistic contexts. Or we may provide the context, specify the function, and ask the student to select its suitable exponent from a given list. With regard to paradigmatic relations, we require, for example, the student to recognise the communicative equivalence of utterances which may, in ideational and grammatical terms, be quite unlike. Example 1 in the Appendix illustrates this technique and shows how a matching exercise can be extended into the development of communicatively equivalent dialogues - a useful method, incidentally, for introducing alternative exponents of given functions.

These and similar techniques provide a useful initial stage to be followed by more demanding exercises involving production. Thus before practising new dialogues concerned with 'requesting information' we might ask the student to state where he thinks various given requests are made (in the street, in the railway station, etc) what interpersonal relationships are involved (is, for example, the use of 'sir' or 'madam' appropriate?) and generally to comment on any contextual information derivable from the given utterances (to recognise, for example, that 'Is the train on Platform Five the London train?' implies the presence of a train at the platform, while 'Is the London train leaving from Platform Five?' does not).

2. Exercises of the second type offer practice in single (if sometimes rather complex) aspects of communication. They generally operate by manipulating one variable while keeping three others constant and are thus, in a sense, communicative drills.

Exercise 2 in the Appendix is a typical example involving, in this case, possible textual arrangements of a given ideational content. Before meeting this exercise, the student has already practised the function of 'requesting information' by stringing together a number of what might be called 'micro-functions'. This has produced sequences like:

I wonder if you'd mind helping me;
I have an appointment with Professor Smithson at 10.00 and I'm trying to find his room.
Do you know where it is?

Exercise 2 aims to elicit other possible textual arrangements as for example:

I'm trying to find Professor Smithson
and I wonder if you'd mind helping me.
I have an appointment with him at 10.00
Do you know where his room is?

Such an exercise reveals, and offers the student practice in handling, the syntactic consequences which choice of one or other arrangement entails. The two arrangements above differ in a number of respects - including the position of 'and', use of pronouns, and possessives. We have further found that by forcing the student to think in terms of alternative textual arrangements, this type of exercise provides a useful counterbalance to previous practice involving fixed dialogue patterns, which may have left the student behaving as if one and only one sequence were possible. In this way we are providing a bridge between previous dialogue drills and freer forms of practice to be later introduced.

The strategy behind Exercise 2 is to provide the student with a constant ideational content and expect him to vary the textual arrangement. Similar exercises manipulate other variables. In a unit on 'making appointments and bookings', for example, we note that sometimes it is appropriate for the requester to suggest day and time while on the other occasions he or she is simply told when to come. (Compare making an appointment with the hairdresser, for example, and making one with the doctor.) Interpersonal factors are involved here, and we practise the variation by presenting the students with a number of situations similar in all important respects but the interpersonal relationships involved. Such an exercise requires the generation of interpersonally appropriate interactions.

3. Useful though exercises which provide practice in single, isolated aspects of communication undoubtedly are, there is clearly room for a third type of exercise: one that attempts to elicit interactions in conditions more closely akin to those found outside the classroom. Such exercises involve simulation and, often role-play.

Simulation exercises cannot of course reproduce every aspect of reality, and we have first to decide which aspects of real communicative situations we wish our exercises to reproduce. Such use as has been made of role-playing and simulation in language-teaching seems to have been associated with advanced levels of learning, and if we were asked to specify those aspects of communication which such exercises simulate, we should probably speak in terms of 'complexity' (that is, the simulations would potentially involve a large number of interactions) and 'freedom' (that is, the students would be free, within rather generally specified instructions, to select the content and form of their utterances).

We would wish to claim that, useful though such exercises might be at certain advanced points in the language course, there are other, perhaps more important aspects of communication which we can begin to simulate early in the teaching materials.

Rather than simulating the complexities of reality we have, in our exercises attempted to reproduce some important aspect of the process by which interaction unfolds. For example, the process involves, as one of its elements, a feedback mechanism which evaluates incoming information against a speaker-aim. Only when that evaluation has taken place does the speaker form his next utterance and the interaction proceeds.

If the feedback mechanism is to play its full and natural part in our exercises we need to create situations in which the speakers must formulate their utterances in accordance with information received during the course of the interaction. This we fail to do if, in a simulation involving 'requesting information' (for example), we provide the requesting participant with the information for which he is asking. The result of using Exercise 3 (Appendix) in which all students have access to all the information at the outset. was a series of communicative disasters, a typical disaster being:

Student A: What time do trains go to Penrith, please?
Student B: Which day do you want to travel?
Student A: I'd like to reserve two seats on the 14.25, please.

Student A knows very well what time trains leave for Penrith, and he feels it unnecessary to attend to B's response, which, he is sure, will simply consist of a list of times. A has mapped out in advance how he thinks the interaction will unfold, basing his predictions on the presumed rather than actual utterances of his interactant. In this example there is a discrepancy between presumed and actual - A incorrectly predicts B's perfectly appropriate response, and the result is a nonsensical interaction. But even if the prediction had been accurate, the feedback mechanism would not have been operating under normal conditions, and the exercise would still have failed - in this respect at least - to simulate the communicative situation. The result would have been 'communicative-like' behaviour rather than true communication.

It is, of course, the case that what we have referred to as the 'feedback mechanism' operates however simple or complex the communicative situation may be. It is furthermore an easy matter for us to ensure that in any given simulation appropriate information is withheld from certain participants. Role-cards constitute one of a number of techniques useful in this respect. There seems to be no reason therefore why we should not simulate this aspect of the communicative process early in our language course.

One reason why simulation exercises have usually been found most suitable for advanced practice is that characteristically the participants are given considerable choice as to what to say and how to say it - as long as they conform to rather general specifications. Choice is clearly an essential part of communication. If we wish to reproduce the conditions under which a speaker communicates and a hearer is informed, we must create simulations in which, at given points, the participants can select courses of action from a number of possible alternatives. Practice in invitations - where, for example, A invites B to do something - may be made meaningful by permitting A to select his invitation from a number of possibilities and by allowing B the freedom to accept or decline the invitation, once given.

Does freedom of choice imply an advanced learning level? It seems to us characteristic of the design of functional syllabuses that we may introduce simulations involving choices often and early in the course. A functional unit on 'invitations' for example - and there is no reason why a unit should not appear early in the course - will introduce exponents not only appropriate for making a number of invitations, but also for accepting and declining them. In a grammatically based syllabus, on the other hand, the exponents would not be grouped together in that way, and simulation offering the choice between accepting and declining an invitation could not be introduced until the most grammatically complex of the exponents had been met - perhaps quite late in the course.

A functional syllabus provides us, then, with a framework within which simulations involving choice may be introduced readily and early. Working within this framework, and taking care to reproduce the conditions discussed earlier concerning feedback mechanisms, we are able - almost from the start, to simulate two important aspects of communication.

In the initial practice stages the possibilities of choice are inevitably restricted and the means of selecting them often arbitrary. Students may be divided into groups, each of which accepts a certain kind of invitation and declines all others. Groupings can be assigned in such a way that inviters have no advance knowledge whether their invitations are to be accepted or declined.

Or a die may be thrown, an even number resulting in acceptance, an odd number in refusal. We have developed a considerable repertoire of techniques for randomising choice in this way. See Exercise 4 in the Appendix for an example.

An important aspect of communication which such initial exercises fail to simulate is the way in which speaker-aim and the total matrix of contextual information guide the interaction, rather than a series of randomly selected instructions to follow certain paths of action.

As soon as we attempt to control interactions by providing contextual information, we face problems of elicitation. Not surprisingly, students experience considerable difficulty in imagining that, rather than sitting in a classroom, they are in fact in a phone-booth enquiring about train-times to Penrith next Friday, especially if they know that ten minutes later the teacher might require them to telephone a restaurant in London to book a table for the same Friday.

Space does not permit a full consideration of possible elicitation techniques, and the following, somewhat random, observations, can do no more than indicate the lines along which we are thinking in this respect. Sometimes the creation of a contextual background is sufficient to elicit adequate interactions. If, for example, we wish to ensure, in the Exercise 3 situation, that train-times will be discussed, we may tell the requester that he has an appointment in London which finished at 2.00 and that it will take him an hour to reach the station. The intended result should be that the student not only has to ask about train-times but also has to listen to what is said to him.

Often, however, a contextual specification is by itself insufficient, and some further aid is required. This may be managed by creating 'secondary situations' which depend in some way on information gleaned from the 'primary simulation'. The dependence may be purely artificial: we may require the requester in Exercise 3 to answer questions concerning his future journey. Or the dependence may be natural: we may ask him to telephone his friend, giving travel details.

Always we have found it necessary to take considerable pains to ensure that the information the participant requires to play his role adequately is presented in a clear and uncomplicated form. All too often the mechanics of a simulation require the participant to extract information from a list or select a time from a timetable, for example. Frequently this information has to be referred back to in the course of an interaction. Unless it is in a readily retrievable form, the student can be forgiven for becoming confused. In this respect role-cards which the students complete themselves before simulation begins are a useful technique.

Exercise 5 in the Appendix exemplifies a revised version of Exercise 3, illustrating some of the techniques which we have found useful

Mention has already been made of how 'primary simulations' may lead into 'secondary situations'. We have in fact made considerable use of this principle to expand simple simulations into more complex role-plays. Inviting someone to dinner can, for example, be made the basis of a string of simulations - explaining to guests how to reach your house; buying provisions for the dinner; greeting guests on arrival; introducing guests to each other, etc. As simulations build themselves up in sequence, the contextual background becomes enriched and the subsequent simulations become more meaningful. Exercise 6 illustrates an interactional flow-chart indicating a possible sequence of simulations based on meeting a friend at a party. Such a chart may be used by the teacher as a basis for role-plays

which provide useful revision exercises as well as opportunities for more advanced practice.

4. Conclusion. We regard the work we have so far done very much as a beginning. Doubtless the continued experimental use of our materials in the classroom will result in extensive modifications, and a final version may include all, some or none of the techniques described here. But whatever the final version looks like, we would emphasise here our commitment to experiment on the level of technique. This is not to under-estimate the importance of syllabus design, course organisation and other related matters; it is simply to recognise that without techniques which are both pedagogically sound and clearly related to our aims and principles the materials we produce can have no hope of success.

References

Halliday, M A K: 'Towards a sociological semantics' in Explorations in the Functions of Language, Arnold 1973.
Van Ek, J A: The Threshold Level. Council of Europe, Strasburg, 1975.

APPENDIX

These exercises are derived from Communicate: The English of Social Interaction, which was originally produced for internal use at the Centre for Applied Language Studies. Anyone interested in the materials is invited to get in touch with the Centre.

Exercise One

A:	Hallo.	A:	.....
	I don't think we know each		.....
	other, do we?		.....
	I'm from Pakistan.		
B:	I'm very pleased to meet	B:	.....
	you		.....
A:	Where are you from?	A:	.....

Nice to know you.
I'm a student.
What do you do for a living?
Excuse me.
Have we met before?

Students insert lower phrases in spaces provided, matching them with the phrases on the left having similar functions. This leads to the formation of a new dialogue.

Exercise Two

Model: Excuse me. I wonder if you'd mind helping me.
I have an appointment with Professor Smithson at 10.00, and I'm trying to find his room. Do you know where it is?

Practise asking:

a. You want to go to London by car. You can't find the right road. Ask someone where it is.

b. You can't remember the name of the Professor of Chemistry, whom you must speak to. Ask someone what his name is.

c. You would like to attend the conference on education, but you're not sure when it finishes. Ask someone how long it lasts.

d. You want to buy a camera you have seen in a shop. You are not sure if you have enough money. Ask the shop-assistant how much it costs.

e. You want to wash your own laundry, which you have never done before. Ask someone how the machine works.

Begin:	I wonder if you could possibly help me .....
	Do you happen to know .....
	I'd like some information.....
Excuse me.	Do you think you could .....
	I'd like to know .....
	Can you give me some information .....
	I'm trying to find .....

Exercise Three

Making a booking

Trains for Penrith and Glasgow leave London:

Monday - Friday	09.15
	14.25
	23.12
Saturday - Sunday	10.42
	22.19

Reserve two seats

Exercise Four

Refusing extra helpings of food at dinner

1.	You've had enough already.	.....
2.	You're just not hungry.	.....
3.	You had a large lunch.	.....
4.	You're in a hurry.	.....
5.	The doctor says you mustn't eat too much.	.....
6.	You're slimming.	.....

I'm putting on too much weight.
I had an enormous meal at midday
I really am full up
I've lost my appetite recently.
I really must go soon
Too much to eat isn't good for me.

(A preceding exercise has provided a large choice of foods that may be offered, and adequate practice in the function of 'offering' has been given. The procedure for this exercise is as follows: a. students insert the lower sentences alongside the sentences on the left, matching 'function' and 'exponent'; b. a die is thrown and the number 1-6 decides the reason (1-6) for refusing food.)

Exercise Five

Participant A

You have one friend who lives in Penrith and another who lives in Newcastle. You want to visit your friend in _____ for three days next week. You will leave London _____. On that day you have an appointment (in London) which finishes at 10.30 and it will take you half an hour to reach the station after that.

In a minute the teacher will ask you to phone your friend in _____ and tell him at what time and on what day you will arrive.

But first telephone the station and reserve a seat.

Participant B

You work in the information office of a large London station. Your job is to tell people about train-timetables. Here are some times:

LONDON - PENRITH

Monday - Friday

London	Penrith
09.15	18.15
10.50	19.50
14.25	01.25
23.12	08.12

Saturday - Sunday

10.42	19.36
22.19	07.15

LONDON - NEWCASTLE

Monday - Friday

London	Newcastle
07.45	16.42
10.45	19.30
15.30	24.00
22.20	07.30

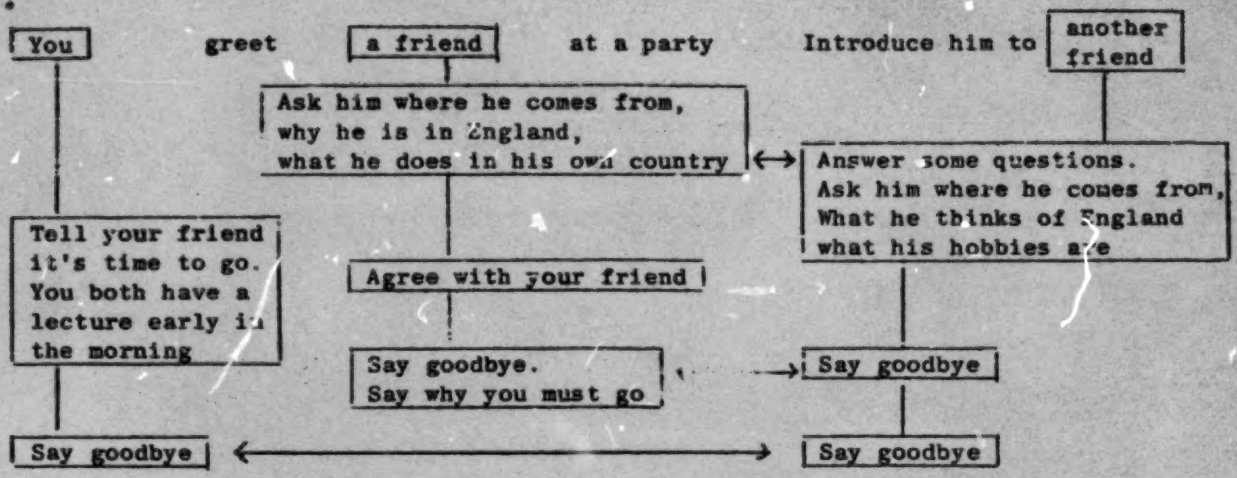
Saturday - Sunday

10.30	19.00
20.08	06.00

A role-play involving two students, A and B. Instructions for each are printed on different pages so that participants are aware only of their own roles. Before the role-play begins, participant A must select a destination (Penrith or Newcastle), day of travel, and a classmate to visit. He must write this information on the spaces provided.

The participants have beforehand been given adequate structured practice in the interactions involved.

Exercise Six


You
greet
a friend
at a party
Introduce him to
another friend
Ask him where he comes from, why he is in England, what he does in his own country
Answer some questions. Ask him where he comes from, What he thinks of England what his hobbies are
Tell your friend it's time to go. You both have a lecture early in the morning
Agree with your friend
Say goodbye. Say why you must go
Say goodbye
Say goodbye
Say goodbye

This flow-chart is seen by the teacher only. The students are given instructions on role-cards.